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VOLUME IX NUMBER I

THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL TEACHER

SEPTEMBER, 1908

CONSOLIDATION AND TRANSPORTATION: A RURAL SCHOOL PROBLEM

ALBERT FREDERICK PROBST
School of Education

I. ORIGIN AND EXTENT OF THE CONSOLIDATED SYSTEM

It was Massachusetts that led the way in the development of the district system and to her is also due the credit of pointing out the way for consolidation. As early as 1869 Massachusetts passed a law which provided for the transportation of pupils to and from the public schools at public cost. Probably Quincy was the first town in the state to act under the law of 1869, having closed two schools in 1874 and transported the children to other schools. Consolidation was complete in Montague Township, Massachusetts, as early as 1875, and was begun in Concord in 1879. From this time on, consolidation spread rapidly throughout the state until in 1904–5, her expenditure for transportation alone amounted to $213,221. Other neighboring states have readily adopted the Massachusetts plan until now the movement reaches not only every one of the New England States but extends to the northern, middle, southern, and western states as well, while the question of consolidation is being agitated in every state in the Union. State Superintendent H. A. Ustrud, of South Dakota, reports May 5, 1908, that South Dakota has about fifteen centralized schools. Superintendent Ustrud adds the following: "A number of townships have voted this spring to centralize, so that in a short time we hope to be right along with other states with the plan."

Francis G. Blair, State Superintendent of Public Instruction of Illinois, reports April 22, 1908, that there is but one consolidated school in the state of Illinois that transports the pupils at public expense.[1]

Georgia has consolidation to a greater or less extent in more than sixty counties of the state, while in Iowa, more than one-half of the counties of the state report consolidation in one or more townships of the county.

Maine and Vermont expend about one-thirtieth of their school money for transportation alone, while Massachusetts' expenditure of $213,221 for transportation of pupils is only about 1.18 per cent. of the total expenditure for her public schools.

While consolidation and transportation have made remarkable advancement in many of the eastern states, and particularly in Maine, Vermont, Massachusetts, and Connecticut, perhaps no greater progress or more rapid advancement can be seen anywhere than in Ohio and Indiana.

It was at Kirksville, in Ashtabula County, that the Ohio plan of centralization or consolidation had its origin in 1892. The erection of a new building in one of the districts of Kingsville Township brought up the question whether or no it would be better to abandon the school in that district and take the children to the village school at public expense. In the first case of consolidation in Ohio the schools were centralized at the village school. Finding special legislation necessary in order to consolidate and transport children at public expense, Ohio passed a bill, April 17, 1894, providing for transportation. April 27, 1896, the Ohio legislature passed another bill for the relief of the counties of Stark, Ashtabula, and Portage, and still later a general law was enacted permitting the people of any township at the annual town election to vote "yes" or "no" on the proposition to centralize the schools of that township; i. e., to abandon the small districts and transport the children at public expense to the central school. Under the law of 1904, the board of trustees may abolish all the subdistricts providing conveyance is furnished to one or more central schools for pupils living more than one-half mile from

[1] Due, perhaps, to the large number of township high schools in the state.

the schoolhouse. "Under this section the schools of a township can be centralized without submitting the question to the electors" (State School Commissioner). This law also provides that centralization, once effected, shall not be discontinued within three years, and then only by petition and election. A central graded school must be maintained in centralized townships, and a high-school course of not less than two years is authorized. Transportation must be furnished all pupils living more than three-fourths of a mile from the central building. Such, in brief, is the history of the legislation in Ohio on consolidation of schools and transportation of pupils.

II. CONSOLIDATION AND TRANSPORTATION IN OHIO

Ohio has done much toward solving the rural-school problem. Her rural schools have attracted the attention of many schoolmen of other states and have been made the subject of frequent reports by visitors from all parts of the country. Consolidation has become so widespread in Ohio that at the present time, April, 1908, there are about two hundred townships in which the schools are centralized.

Ohio's first centralized school, the Kingsville school, is a typical example of rural and village consolidation, and perhaps I could do no better than to quote from the *Arena* for July, 1899, concerning the advantages and the satisfaction which it gives to the people of Kingsville Township. This report was made after the school had been in operation eight years and had outgrown the experimental stage, and while this school has made great progress in the nine years since this report was written, yet this same testimony might now be given of many other consolidated schools, not only of Ohio, but of other states both sides of the Mississippi. The quotation is as follows:

> The residents of the subdistricts of Kingsville Township which have adopted this plan would deem it a retrogression to go back to the old subdistrict plan. It has given the school system of Kingsville an individuality which makes it unique and progressive. Pupils from every part of the township enjoy a graded-school education, whether they live in the most remote corner of the township or at the very doors of the central school. The line between the country-bred and the village-bred youth is blotted out.

They study the same books, are competitors for the same honors and engage in the same sports and pastimes. This mingling of the pupils from the subdistricts and the village has had a deepening and broadening influence on the former without any disadvantage to the latter. With the grading of the school and the larger number of pupils have come teachers of a more highly educated class. Higher branches of study are taught; the teachers are more conversant with the needs of their profession; the salaries are higher; the health of the pupils is safeguarded, because they are not compelled to walk to school in slush, snow, and rain, to sit with damp and perhaps wet feet in ill-ventilated buildings. Nor is there any lounging by the wayside. As the use of indecent language is prohibited in the wagons, all opportunities for quarreling or improper conduct on the way to and from the school are removed. The attendance is larger, and in the subdistricts which have taken advantage of the plan it has increased from 50 to 150 per cent. in some cases; truancy is unknown. It has lengthened the school year for a number of the subdistricts; it has increased the demands for farms in those districts which have adopted the plan, and real estate therein is reported more stable. The drivers act as daily mail carriers. All parts of the townships have been brought into closer touch and sympathy. The cost of maintenance is less than that of the schools under the district plan; the township has had no schoolhouses to build; it has paid less for repair and fuel. Since the schools were consolidated the incidental expenses have decreased from $800 to $1,100 per year to from $400 to $600 per year. In the first three years following its adoption Kingsville Township actually saved $1,000.

Green Township presents an example of consolidation distinctly rural. The people of Green Township had watched the school in a neighboring township for two years and had become so thoroughly converted to the new plan that they voted to bond the township for a long term of years to erect a $6,000 modern and up-to-date school building. This building stands in the center of the township eleven miles from one railroad and six miles from another. The building contains six schoolrooms, with two additional rooms, one of which might be used for a library room and the other for a reception room. It is heated by steam and has a basement under the entire building, part of which might be utilized for laboratories, gymnasium, etc. To this building are brought all the children of the entire township. The enrolment the first year was 180, an increase of thirty over the last year in the scattered schools. Eight wagons are employed in transporting

the children to the central building. The school grounds comprise about three acres, much of which is now used for gardening and elementary agriculture.

III. CONSOLIDATION AND TRANSPORTATION IN INDIANA

Indiana is fast taking the lead among the states, if she has not already taken it, in the matter of consolidation and transportation. The number of schools abandoned has grown from 679, in 1904, to 1,314 in 1908—449 schools being abandoned from September, 1907, to April, 1908. The number of consolidated schools has increased from 280, in 1904, to 418 in 1908, while the number of children transported has increased from 5,356, in 1904, to 16,034, in 1908. The cost per day at the present time, April, 1908, for transportation of pupils in Indiana is $1,749.24, while the cost per wagon per day is $1.87. Such has been the progress of the consolidated system in Indiana in the last four years and even greater progress will be made in the immediate future owing to the large number of small, one-teacher schools which still exist in the state and the recent enactment of a law by the last legislature which went into effect April 10, 1907. At the present time there are 387 schools in the state with an attendance of fewer than twelve pupils, and 699 schools with an attendance of fewer than fifteen pupils.

The legislature of 1907 enacted a law making compulsory the abandonment of all schools in which the average daily attendance is twelve or fewer, and gives the trustees the authority to abandon all schools where the attendance is fifteen or fewer; provided, the conditions as to roads, streams and bridges permit of such discontinuance. The law provides further that

> it shall be the duty of the township trustee to provide for the education of such pupils as are affected by such or any former discontinuance in other schools, and they shall provide and maintain means of transportation for all such pupils as live at a greater distance than two miles, and for all pupils between the ages of six (6) and twelve (12) that live less than two miles and more than one mile from the schools to which they may be transferred as a result of such discontinuance. Such transportation shall be in comfortable and safe conveyances. The drivers of such conveyances shall furnish the teams therefor and shall use every care for

the safety of the children under their charge, and shall maintain discipline in such conveyances. Restrictions as to the use of public highways shall not apply to such conveyances. The expenses incident to carrying into effect the provisions of this act shall be paid from the public school funds.

E. C. Crider, County Superintendent of Tippecanoe County, submits the following statistical report showing centralization from 1899 to 1906.

Townships	Schools Abandoned	Additional Teachers	Number of Hacks	Number of Pupils Conveyed
Lauramie	10	7	9	197
Randolph	5	4	5	90
Jackson	2	0	1	8
Wayne	3	1	2	44
Union	1	0	0	...
Wea	7	3	6	100
Sheffield	2	1	1	12
Perry	4	3	3	48
Washington	7	2	5	76
Tippecanoe	2	1	1	9
Wabash	3	0	2	26
Shelby	6	2	1	10
Fairfield	2	0	0	...
Total	54	24	36	620

NOTE.—Of the additional teachers two were for rural schools, eight were for high schools, fourteen were needed because of centralization. Length of transportation routes, from 2½ to 7 miles. Cost per day for hacks, from $1.00 to $2.50. Total daily cost of service, $63.75. Number of children per hack, from 8 to 27. Total number of pupils conveyed in the county, 623. All drivers but six provide their own hacks.

Mr. Crider reports that many of the rural schools of Tippecanoe County were so small that they could hardly be designated as schools. Animation and life were lacking. Very often there was but one pupil in a grade, so there were no companionship and competition in the work. The inexperienced teacher was often present. One school had not had an experienced teacher in ten years. Of the 123 rural schools of the county, fifty-four have been abandoned. As a rule, the idea of centralization has generally been well accepted. There are sometimes some objections made to the details in carrying out the plan but the idea has been seldom opposed. The principal complaint concerning transportation is in regard to the hack, the driver, the length of time

on the road. A frequent complaint is that children have to start too early.

In contrasting the new plan with the old, and after several years' experience in Tippecanoe County, Mr. Crider says: "The complaints about consolidation, as I see it, are not more numerous nor as serious as the complaints made about poor work and inexperienced teachers under the old plan. The greatest proof that centralization gives general satisfaction is that these fifty-four schools are not missed."

In 1899 there were 164 township teachers in Tippecanoe County. In 1906 there were 133 with nearly one-half the schools of the county abandoned.

In Wea Township six wagons, each heated by a stove and made comfortable, are used to convey the one hundred pupils to a modern, central building heated by a furnace and provided with all the necessary appliances of a well-equipped city school. A well-selected library of nearly one thousand volumes is one of the great advantages of this school. The trustees have built a barn large enough for ten horses and buggies for the high-school pupils who drive. One teacher who can do high-grade music work is employed to give instruction to all the pupils of the school.

Lauramie Township employs nine wagons whose drivers are carefully selected and their routes carefully laid out. One feature of their contract should be generally adopted:—every driver whose route crosses a railroad is required to get out of the hack and lead the team across the track, thus avoiding all chance of being run down by a train.

Shelby Township, after four years of experience with consolidation, makes the following report: (*a*) It has made it possible to increase the length of the term from 6½ months to 7½ months. (*b*) Schools made better. Pupils placed in larger classes, which permitted a fuller discussion of the lesson. It gave them a chance to measure themselves with others. (*c*) Interest raised in the school. Parents quick to realize the advantages and are anxious to keep their children in the high school. (*d*) The building, one of the finest in the county, has a large assembly room for lectures, public meetings, etc. (*e*) High school of four years. Graduates

receive credit for work done in the high school in nearly every college and university in the state.

Mr. S. D. Symmes, trustee of Union Township, Montgomery County, says: "The success of the consolidated school is in getting the children to and from school in the most approved way and in the shortest time. Our drivers are men of good reputation and are paid good wages. Each route is run on schedule time, so that the children know to the minute when the wagon

TRANSPORTATION WAGON, DELPHI WAGON WORKS

will arrive, and thus they can be ready to go. Drivers are not expected to wait over two minutes for children to get ready. They carry a book which shows the time they arrive at every home. Routes are from four to six miles in length and can be made in an hour and a half. The wagons are made specially for the conveyance of pupils, having a door and steps at the back, a door on the side for the driver, a window in front, roll side curtains, and are provided with foot warmers, lap robes, etc.

Lima, Lagrange County, a village of about six hundred population, gives the following interesting account of her experience with consolidation: Seventy per cent. of the children are from the country. Town and school centrally located. Length of

school term is nine months. There are nine years of grade work and four years in the high school. There are 160 pupils in the grades and 90 in the high school, with a total enumeration of 269. This was the first township high school in the state to be commissioned by the State Board of Education. It is placed on the accredited list of the North Central Association. It employs a special teacher of music and there are two pianos in the high school and an organ in each grade room. The high school maintains choruses and orchestra, and a glee club. There is a school hall with a raised floor and an equipped stage. A $400 lecture course is sustained. The school is provided with a library and reading room with one thousand volumes and a paid librarian; a laboratory well equipped for scientific investigation; a school garden of two hundred plats for the study of agriculture throughout the grades and high school; a free kindergarten and an athletic field; a five-acre playground and a separate building for gymnasium, well equipped.

There are four teachers in the high school—all college graduates, and five professionally trained teachers in the grades. The high-school course of study includes four years each of English, Science, Music, and Latin; three years each in mathematics, history, and German; common branch "review," household science, bookkeeping, public speaking and agriculture.

The following show conditions in the centralized school of Lima township:

Number of days in session	180
Number enrolled in the school	250
Number enrolled in the grades	160
Number enrolled in the high school	90
Average per cent. of attendance	96
Number of teachers	10
Total school enumeration	269
Total number of foreign pupils	40
Total expenditures for school purposes	$7,159.60

One of the most remarkable schools in Indiana is located at Graysville, a small village in Sullivan County. This school is of unusual interest as a rural school from the point of view of the large amount of industrial work which is being done through-

out all its departments. Friday afternoon is given up to industrial work in all the departments of the school. The rest that is accomplished in the industrial line is all done outside of school hours—at noons and recesses, after school hours at night and on Saturdays.

Some of the things that are being attempted are sewing and stitching, basket weaving, venetian iron, pounding brass and copper, book-binding, rug-weaving and leather-tooling for the

CONSOLIDATED GRADED SCHOOL BUILDING, UNION TOWNSHIP, JOHNSON COUNTY

girls; cabinet-work, carpenter-work, cement-laying, venetian iron, pounding brass and copper, wood-carving, setting type and printing, leather-tooling and book-binding for the boys. There are tools for doing all this work in the school, some owned by the township, some owned by the principal, and some by the pupils. Immediately adjoining the school-yard is a two-story building which has been fitted up for a workroom for the boys, and here, at noon and recesses, at night and on Saturdays, some twenty boys are busy. Some of this work is done for the township in the way of cement walks around the schoolhouse, building of outhouses, making bookcases, etc. The industrial work is correlated with

the textbook work in the various subjects in a way that not only gives a larger and richer meaning to these subjects but also an added value to every production in the shop.

These are some of the advantages which the great state of Indiana, great at least in an educational way, furnishes to more than a quarter of a million country boys and girls.

From the large number of reports from all parts of the country, from state superintendents of public instruction, from county superintendents, from principals of consolidated schools, from the parents and from the children themselves, wherever consolidation has been tried, can be gleaned this common and almost unanimous sentiment which can be summed up under three heads. First, better health, less exposure in going to and returning from school, better heat, better light, better ventilation, and better sanitary conditions. Second, better education: morally, socially, and intellectually. Third, greater economy of money, time, and effort.

Perhaps the best proof of the universal satisfaction with which consolidation meets, is the fact that so few schools ever return to the old plan, no matter how little or how great the cost to make the experiment. From the large number of reports examined, there was found but one school out of the several hundred that have tried the new plan that has gone back to the small, one-teacher school and that was because of an accident in transportation and before the new plan had been given a fair trial.

IV. ADVANTAGES OF CONSOLIDATION

To sum up, then, the many advantages which the system of consolidation and transportation offers:

1. Consolidation provides for better and more modern school buildings: better lighted, better heated, better ventilated, with better sanitary conditions; all of which tend to improve and promote the health interests of the school and of the community.

2. Consolidation is more economical than the many small schools. Under the consolidated system, the cost is less for repairs, fuel, apparatus, etc. Consolidation lessens the expense and equalizes, more nearly, the cost.

3. Consolidation provides for better teachers and, because of

the more favorable social conditions which exist among them, they have greater enthusiasm and interest in their work. Teachers are engaged for a longer term and are paid better salaries, enabling the trustees to secure teachers who have had a normal school, college, or university training. Trained and experienced teachers for special subjects, such as music, drawing, agriculture, nature study, etc., are secured.

4. Closer and better supervision is made possible by consolidation. There are fewer schools for the county superintendent to supervise and much of the time spent in traveling the many miles necessary to reach a hundred or more small schools can be utilized to better advantage. Then, too, wherever the consolidated school has taken the place of a half-dozen or more small schools, there is an added advantage in having a principal at its head, who is competent to manage and supervise the educational and disciplinary affairs of the school.

5. Under consolidation there are fewer and better school officers; there are less politics and less favoritism and, hence, better school conditions.

6. Under consolidation there is a longer term of school than many of the small schools now have, and at less cost.

7. The consolidated system provides for a greater variety of studies, including manual training, domestic science, agriculture, music, gymnastics, etc., hence a greater incentive to boys and girls to continue in school long enough to finish the high-school course.

8. Consolidation engenders that healthy educational spirit which can only come with the association of numbers. It provides for larger classes from which teachers are able to secure the interest and healthy rivalry which does not arise in the small district school. Parents take greater interest in the educational affairs of the community.

9. Consolidation tends toward a more healthy social spirit in the school and in the community; rural and village children mingle together upon a common plain, the one securing much from the other. Parents and teachers become better acquainted with each other through frequent social gatherings at the common

meeting-place—the schoolhouse. Home and school are brought into closer relation to each other.

10. Under consolidation a better system of grading pupils, together with departmental teaching, is made possible. The teacher is no longer required to instruct in all the common branches pupils of all ages, but only in those subjects which she is especially prepared to teach. With better grading the teacher

PREPARING A LESSON IN AGRICULTURE, GRAYSVILLE HIGH SCHOOL

has fewer and longer periods of recitation and is able to give her pupils more individual attention.

11. With consolidation come better roads, giving the farmer the best facilities for transportation and thereby increasing the valuation of the farm.[2]

12. Consolidation has made possible the solution of the problem of agricultural education, and it is the only complete solution that has been offered.

13. Consolidation is the only plan tried or proposed by which

[2] Once when a man wished to sell his farm he advertised, "A school near." Now he advertises, "Children conveyed to good schools." "Good graveled roads all the way to town."

the country child can secure such an education as modern conditions demand, and such as is already afforded the city child.

14. Through consolidation, country boys and girls are furnished a good education from the kindergarten through the high school without disturbing the home either by separation of members of the family or by "moving to town to educate the children."

15. Consolidation provides for a paid janitor, who is able to keep the school building and grounds in a neat, attractive, and sanitary condition.

16. Consolidation also provides for better supervision and better discipline in the building and on the playground at noon and recess.

17. Athletics is one of the factors in the solution of the problem of "how to keep boys in school" and consolidation furnishes even better advantages for athletics than the city school.

18. Consolidation is one of the means of solving the problem of "compulsory education" and under it there is practically no need of a truant officer.

20. Consolidation brightens and broadens country life and rationalizes the movement toward population centers.

V. ADVANTAGES OF TRANSPORTATION

Some of the advantages of transportation of pupils.

1. Under transportation there is far better attendance. No tardiness.

2. Transportation tends to the formation of habits of punctuality not only on the part of the pupils but on the part of the parents in getting their children ready for the hack on time.

3. Through transportation, pupils are provided with warm, comfortable conveyances instead of having to walk through rain, slush, and snow and then sit through the day with wet feet and clothing.

4. In transportation there is no opportunity for loitering by the wayside or fighting on the road to and from school. Vulgar and indecent language, which was frequently used in the presence of the larger girls and the small children when returning from the small school, is now turned to conversation concerning the social

welfare or the work of the school as suggested by the driver or by some of the older pupils.

5. The many trolley lines throughout Ohio and Indiana with half-fare to schools, puts the consolidated school within easy reach of many school children of these states.

VI. SOME OBJECTIONS TO THE CONSOLIDATED SYSTEM

1. Perhaps the chief objection is in the abandonment of the old district school and the erection of a new central building. This objection is anchored partly to tradition, but is more largely a question of expense in the way of increased taxation for a modern school building.

2. Another objection which is frequently raised is that consolidation tends to decrease the value of farm property by abandoning the nearby school. As a matter of fact, reports generally show that by consolidation the value of farms has increased through good roads, better school conditions, and a more united educational and social sentiment throughout the whole community.

3. Some parents object to consolidation on the ground that they are obliged to get their children ready for school much earlier than when they walked to the nearby school, and that they are too long on the road in going to and returning from the central school. While this objection is well grounded, it might be questioned whether even the pupils who live farthest from the central school are on the road longer when conveyed than when they walked from school.

4. Again, parents of young children frequently complain of the little ones being so far from home for so long a time. Every true mother has experienced a feeling of lonesomeness when the little one entered the school, and especially where the school was a small, delapidated country school, and where the teacher had little or no leisure time to give the little folk. But in the modern consolidated school building, with bright, cheerful, well-equipped kindergarten, rest, and playrooms in charge of an experienced and well-trained kindergarten teacher who has learned to take the place of the kindest of mothers, with telephone lines from the

school to every home by which parents can keep in communication with the teacher, mothers have little to fear.

5. Some parents object to having their children eat cold dinners at school on the ground that it is not healthy. This, too, is a valid objection; but why not provide a kitchen and lunch-room in every consolidated building where children can get a warm lunch and have a clean and respectable place to eat it? This is being done in many of the city schools. Why not in the consolidated school, where there is even a better opportunity than in most city schools. Every consolidated school, with four teachers or more, should have a course of training in domestic science, and the well-managed, well-equipped lunch-room will furnish a part of such a course.

6. As the success of consolidation depends largely upon the facility of transportation, it is perfectly evident that not all states and sections of the country present as favorable conditions for the carrying out of the plan as do Ohio and Indiana. The climate and topography of the country, the density of population, the wealth interests of the community—all these are determining factors in the solution of this great problem; yet country people everywhere are at last beginning to see that while they pay more for elementary instruction alone than city schools cost, including the high-school course, their schools are far behind the city schools in instruction, supervision, and in the character of buildings. These people are beginning to realize more keenly than ever before the need of better educational advantages and they are determined to have them through the one solution of the problem—that of consolidation; and when the consolidated school has all the advantages of the city school in addition to those which the country already affords, it will then be the best in the land.

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A NEW DEMAND UPON PROFESSIONAL SCHOOLS FOR TEACHERS

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1. It is a common experience for principals and teachers in elementary schools to be called upon by pupils and their parents for advice concerning the prospective careers of pupils. Whether or no a pupil shall continue in school or enter at once upon an apprenticeship in a trade or in a commercial pursuit; whether he shall plan to enter a high school and, if so, in what course; whether it would be advisable for the pupil to prepare for a professional career and, if so, for what profession—these are practical problems such as parents and their children are constantly facing. Recognizing their own inability to work out satisfactory solutions to such problems, many pupils, with or without the knowledge and support of their parents, turn with significant confidence to teacher or principal or superintendent for counsel or guidance.

Though teachers and school officers are not altogether loath to tender their good offices in such cases, it may be seriously doubted whether the advice given often has value other than advice of friendly interest. Excepting the cases where strong native tendencies in children leave little or no doubt as to the vocations for which they are fitted, there is apparently little basis upon which either parents or teachers may make reliable forecasts as to the probable success or failure of a given child in specific vocations. The individuals having native abilities most strongly marked are, of course, least in need of specific guidance in the choice of vocations. It is the great majority without well-defined or clearly recognizable tendencies who must have such guidance if we are to substitute for the present practice of purely fortuitous choice of vocations a more rational practice based upon the adaptation of the individual to his work.

The results of the present random selection of vocations are widespread and evident. Commercial failures, incompetent mechanics, disgruntled professional men, unsympathetic and mechanical teachers, prosaic poets, uninspired preachers, briefless lawyers, honest politicians, and dishonest bank clerks—these and similar evidences point to a deplorable maladjustment.

2. The present organization of elementary education is not designed, even in its later years, to make children aware of their special abilities. The elementary-school course is based upon two radically erroneous assumptions; the first, that the great majority of the pupils in the schools will finish the elementary grades; the second, that the needs of the pupils in the elementary grades are identical as to the so-called "fundamental" education extending through eight years of the school course.

Accurate data as to the dropping out of pupils in the elementary grades are not available, but it is a matter of common knowledge among teachers that pupils drop out with increasing frequency after the fifth school year. This tendency is commonly attributed to economic causes; and without doubt the desire of many parents to have their children begin to earn a livelihood does account for the dropping out of many children. If the facts were known, however, it could probably be shown that economic pressure is not one of the strongest influences in producing this tendency. There is undoubtedly, among parents and pupils, a widespread feeling, not without reasonable basis, that the latter years of the elementary-school course are not highly essential to the welfare of the children and that there is a greater economic advantage in several years of apprenticeship than a like number of years in the upper grades of the elementary schools.

An indication of the truth of this statement may be found in the fact that the organization of technical and commercial courses in high schools commonly has the effect of increasing registration and of raising the percentage of pupils continuing to the end of the outlined course in such schools. The influences that determine the dropping out of pupils in high schools are probably not very different from those operative in elementary schools.

The deliberate choice of a considerable proportion of the

pupils in elementary grades to leave school and enter upon some vocational pursuit, even when economic pressure is not unduly strong and parents advise against the discontinuance of school work, is evidence of a distinct psychological need that arises in the early period of adolescence. The indication is clear that pupils at this stage of their development require greater differentiation and specialization of training than the elementary school is providing. There is actual call for something that leads to a definite outcome in terms of the world's work, especially in terms of that part of it for which the powers and prospects of the individual pupil specially qualify him. There is an impulse, almost an instinct, among many pupils, to try their powers on "real" things; on things that mean much and count much in human affairs.

It is this impulse that gives much of the force possessed by the "manual-training movement." Even the manual training as commonly organized, however, fails to meet adequately the psychological demand for work that bears directly upon the problems of individual and social life. The subject is still too far away from the real social world in which vocations play so commanding a part. Manual training does not "help" in a way sufficiently direct and definite to meet the demands under consideration.

Not only are teachers and administrative officers unable, then, to give pupils trustworthy guidance in the matter of a choice of vocation, but the school is ill adapted, in its last few years, to the peculiar psychological needs of children whose powers are clearly differentiating and whose interests are potentially or actually of a strongly practical nature. There is an obvious call here for the reorganization of the last few years of elementary education in such a way as to provide more effectively for the needs of the various groups of children differing in native capacity, in social and industrial surroundings, in power of self-support, and, consequently, in prospective career.

The familiar objections to early specialization will readily come to mind in this connection. These objections were employed in the long since abandoned fight against the system of

election in college courses. They are still retained as stock arguments by the conservatives and reactionists in the field of secondary education. They will no doubt be similarly used by the opponents of optional courses in elementary education. The problem is really identical throughout the whole range of educational organization, and the final solution must inevitably conform to the fundamental facts involved. Briefly stated the question is: how may we provide for the most effective development of the capacities of a group of individuals who differ widely in moral and intellectual inheritance in cultural surroundings, in acquired taste and powers, in economic status, and in prospective career; are the interests of individuals and of society, under these conditions, best subserved by a single, undifferentiated, prescribed programme of studies or by a flexible system of optional courses designed to meet the specific needs of the different classes of individuals in the group?

If a completely social basis for education be accepted, it is difficult to see how this question can be answered other than in one way. The facts of genetic psychology and the facts of normal social life alike demand that adequate provision be made for special training whenever special aptitudes and special tastes come to be strongly enough marked to serve as the basis for separating individuals into distinct groups.

There is a prevailing notion that, in a democracy such as ours, equal educational opportunities must be offered to all children alike. This principle is indeed somewhat generally regarded as a fundamental corollary of democracy itself. When, however, we interpret "equal" educational opportunities to mean the "same" education for all, we are pushing the principle to an unwarrantable extreme. What to one child or group may be an educational opportunity of highest value, to another child or group may be no opportunity at all. It is not what is offered but what can be utilized in the way of education that is to be accounted genuine opportunity. "Completely rounded manhood," "a fundamental common-school education for all children," and similar statements of the aim of elementary education are superficially attractive to an uncritical audience; but they must be

relegated to the educational lumber-room along with a good many other worn-out traditions.

Our conventional distinction between elementary and secondary education is, in fact, without completely rational meaning. The practical distinction in organization may easily be explained historically, but it has little if any direct relation to existing social relations. It is difficult to find any tenable reason for an eight-year "elementary" course, planned for all children, to be followed by a four-year "secondary" course planned for all children who survive the so-called elementary course, and designed primarily to meet the requirements for admission to college. A rational distinction between elementary and secondary education would appear to be that secondary courses of instruction should be provided when children reach the secondary stage of development; that is, a stage of fairly distinct differentiation of interests and capacities. The elementary education, from this point of view, should be distinctly fundamental and social in character and should extend through the period when children are relatively unspecialized in their development. The facts previously discussed in this paper indicate that the point of division between elementary and secondary education belongs much earlier in the school course than it is now placed.

3. The mere organization of special courses and special schools designed to meet the specific needs of various groups of children will not, however, be of itself sufficient to assure us of a properly effective and democratic system of education. We must go farther and find a way to bring boys and girls to a definite consciousness of their specific abilities and thus make it possible for them to make rational choice among the courses open to them and, ultimately, of their respective vocations. Merely capricious choice of a course of instruction would certainly be as likely to result disastrously as capricious choice of a vocation. The undesirable results of capricious choice in both directions are to be avoided, if at all, by giving careful consideration to the influence of mental and moral traits upon success in various specific undertakings.

It is by no means certain, to be sure, that all of the persons at

present accounted unsuccessful in given vocations could have been assured of success in other vocations by even the most accurate determination in advance of their mental and moral traits. It must be evident, however, that under given environmental conditions these traits are the sole influences in determining success. Conversely, if an individual's mental and moral makeup be known we should be able to forecast his success in a given activity and thus furnish him with reliable guidance, provided we have also sufficient knowledge of the qualities required for success in given directions.

It may be suggested that the elements entering into individual character and the factors determining success in various careers present complications that make it impossible to find reliable solutions for such problems as those under consideration. But while it must be admitted that the difficulties are great, it may be confidently denied that they are insurmountable.

The application of modern statistical method to the measurement of mental traits has already demonstrated the possibility of a knowledge of mental and social life, both of individuals and of groups, far more extensive and thoroughgoing than any yet attained on a large scale. Recent investigations concerning the influence of heredity, notably that of Dr. F. A. Woods, on *Mental and Moral Heredity in Royalty*, have made clear the preponderating influence of inheritance in determining the mental and moral attainments of individuals. The direction for safe advance seems quite clearly marked. What good reason can there be for ignoring the plain facts of biology and of psychology; for assuming that children are really as clay in the potter's hands; and for leaving to chance and the vagaries of unenlightened impulse the important function of selecting, for the mass of our boys and girls, the activity to which each will devote the main part of his life?

4. A reasonable procedure would appear to call for: first, a system of psychological tests calculated to determine the chief mental and moral traits of each pupil; second, precise study of the co-relations between specific traits in individuals and success in typical vocations; third, the accumulation of properly recorded

data which, in subsequent generations, may serve as the basis for determining the probable tendencies due to inheritance.

If such a plan be sound, and if it is to be generally accepted, schools for the professional training of teachers must take an active part in developing its possibilities. Teachers must be equipped to recognize, to search for, and to interpret the evidences of special aptitude in pupils. In order that teachers and school officers may be thus equipped, it is necessary that the influence of heredity upon mental and moral traits be frankly recognized, and that we find a conception of genetic psychology more vital and practical than any yet widely prevalent.

It should hardly be necessary to present arguments in support of this assumption that professional schools should take a leading part in educational research and educational experimentation. It is a curious historical paradox that the study of the educational process, in many the crowning interest of mankind, should so signally have failed to profit by the example furnished in the unparalleled success attained elsewhere by the method of science. If teaching is to be in fact as well as in name a genuine profession, the spirit of investigation, of the pursuit of new truth, should pervade every school for the training of teachers.

Nor should it be necessary to answer the oft-repeated objection that "experimenting with children" is a reprehensible practice, incompatible with the best interests of the children. Every intelligent teacher is an experimenter, in the sense that he is constantly seeking to find better means and better matter to carry out the aims of education. The person trained in the method of scientific research simply has an advantage over a person not so trained, in the directness and facility with which he is able to carry on his experiments. As Professor Dewey has aptly said, "The experimentation is *for* the children, not *with* the children." The perennial freshness of interest, the attitude of inquiry, and the open-mindedness that must inevitably characterize the professional work of a person trained to habits of scientific inquiry, are in themselves a sufficient reason for placing marked emphasis upon methods of research in all institutions for the professional training of teachers. The solution of the main problem proposed

in this discussion, therefore, constitutes a new and urgent demand upon schools for the professional training of teachers.

SUMMARY

1. School officers and teachers, though often called upon by parents and pupils for advice concerning the prospective careers of pupils, in general are as helpless as the parents themselves to give advice that may be relied upon.

2. The school as organized is not able to bring boys and girls to definite consciousness of their specific abilities such as might enable them to adjust themselves rationally rather than fortuitously to the requirements of social life. This fact is partly accountable for the relatively unsuccessful careers of the great mass of our population.

3. With proper data concerning the inheritance and the personal development of individual pupils, it would be possible for teachers and school officers to determine, with considerable accuracy, the career for which individuals are best fitted.

4. In order that this result may be attained, professional schools must equip teachers to search for, to recognize, and to interpret the evidences of special aptitude. This will necessitate a clear recognition of the influence of heredity upon mental and moral traits, and a more vital and practical view of genetic psychology than is yet widely prevalent.

THE RELATION BETWEEN THE IDEAL AND THE PRACTICAL IN THE KINDERGARTEN PROGRAMME

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Every individual is living out, each moment, his own view of the relation between the ideal and the practical, between ultimate purpose and immediate necessity. Unrest comes from the constant changing of relationship necessary to growth. A quiescent state in individuals, in groups, in institutions, would show deterioration, for the elevation of the ideal with the consequent adjustment of the practical is the activity which indicates the expanding of life.

The relation between the ideal and the practical in the kindergarten programme is therefore not a static condition; yet if it is a valid relationship, it must be based upon the same principle as that relation in the world at large. In this paper it will be assumed that the relationship is one of unity, not identity, that both are aspects necessary for reality, the ideal being the power, and the practical the means, by which the potential becomes actual.

Every act which rises above the threshold of an impulsive or an instinctive action, is by its very nature ideal-practical. It implies in varying degrees that there is a purpose, that the immediate action is not left on the plane of the present, but is lifted somewhat toward the possibility of the future. Except with the pessimist, it implies the attitude which learns from the past, and which interprets by faith, believing that the future will excel the past by the help of the present.

In attempting to define the position held toward the relationship between the ideal and practical in the kindergarten programme, it will be well to seek in the past for that which will aid in leading toward the goal mapped out by far-sighted inter-

preters. To Froebel we will turn, as it was not possible to have a kindergarten (to educate consciously a child of five years) until he had brought to consciousness certain educative principles. Froebel is also one of the philosophers who will point out the goal.

Froebel saw all living and consequently all education as a process of interaction. His observations led him to discern that it was carried on from the beginning of the new life to the last days. His educational aim was to bring to consciousness in the individual, the idea that strength of personality was dependent upon the degree to which interaction was carried on. It was for the purpose of encouraging a child to develop this principle in his daily living, and also to see it in perspective as fully as his few years made possible, that the kindergarten was established. This was the step in the revelation of the principle which the five-year-old child was to take.

It was Froebel who saw that interaction occurred in three different directions in the universe: between an individual and (1) a higher level, God; (2) the same level, man, and (3) a lower level, nature. It is the differing attitudes of human beings which make it possible to appreciate these different levels. There are all gradations of attitudes and so there are feelings of many different levels, but these three are different enough in degree to be designated as distinct types. The attitude toward (1) a higher level is that of worship, toward (2) the same, comradeship, toward (3) a lower, control. The first attitude involves a feeling of an ideal to be copied, an end to be attained; the third, a feeling of material to be impressed, a means to be used to gain some end; the second attitude involves a feeling of the possibility of both copying and impressing, of using as means or as end.

The kindergarten, as Froebel suggested it to us, was to show the principle of interaction working in the form in which it was found in the universe, in its three different directions. The teacher was to stand for (1) the higher level; she was to call forth the feelings of love, faith and obedience. The playmates were to stand for (2) the world of humanity, and the spirit of co-operation was to be cultivated; opportunities were to be given for each one to lead and to be led. (3) Materials were to be

used for carrying out and enlarging the child's expressions of his purposes, and in order that this functional use might be accomplished in the best way, the possibilities of the materials were to be considered. These are the three factors in the kindergarten programme (teacher, playmates, materials[1]), which are to be so used that a child will be able to comprehend better the working of interaction in his later life.

The kindergartner is the one to whom a child should look for guidance. She is the sympathetic leader who stands to the child, relatively, as the philosophers do to the adult. It is she who will develop his behavior toward a standard; it is she who will give the cue as to his association with other children; and it is she who will suggest his attitude toward materials. It is the kindergartner who determines what a child shall gain from the other factors. She stands to the child as an embodiment of an ideal and also provides means by which he can strive toward it. The most important connecting link then, between the ideal and the practical in the kindergarten programme, is the kindergartner.

The next point is the consideration of the motive which will determine a teacher's influence in the kindergarten. If every individual is living out, each moment, his own view of the relation between the world's purpose and immediate necessity, he will give back to the world what he feels the world has given him, he will give back the meaning which the world has for him. Professor James says, your philosophy "is your individual way of just seeing and feeling the push and pressure of the cosmos."[2] The philosophy of the kindergartner governs the programme. It will indicate the goal toward which to strive and also point out the path by which this can be reached. Let us consider the attitude of the kindergartner toward a few of the philosophical problems which will most strongly affect the programme.

The attitude which the kindergartner will try to create toward herself will depend upon her own feeling toward the spirit in the

[1] The word "materials," as here employed, covers everything that a child uses as a means in gaining control of his experience. Conversation, song, and story are materials for the tongue, rhythm and games for the body, handwork of various kinds for the hand.

[2] William James, *Pragmatism*, p. 4.

universe. She could hold one of three differing views (1) that spirit is transcendent only, (2) that it is immanent only, or (3) that it both enfolds and is in matter. If (1) God is transcendent only, the kindergartner will rule her little world with absolute authority, requiring blind obedience, probably controlling with kindness, but considering no appeal possible. With this attitude there is a tendency to ignore the child's impulses and instincts, using artificial means to make growth. If (2) spirit is immanent solely, there will be no attempt to set a standard. The decision of the children will be as important as that of the teacher. Her idea will be, that a child will force his best growth if allowed to follow his own wish. If (3) the same spirit is in and around all, impulses and instincts will be utilized to make toward the highest ideals known. The children will be helped to work for self-control by exercising their own power of making decisions, but these will be aided by the suggestion and example of the adult. This adult will reserve to herself the final authority, where permanent injury, either physical or moral, might result.

Kindergartners may have differing views concerning the relation of the past to the present. This will affect the development of the social spirit among the children. If (1) the values recognized by the best men of today are the only ones of worth, children must be made to conform to those standards. If (2) the ideals of the past are as important as those of the present, children may be allowed to form their own ideals as a group without advice or aid. But if (3) the values found by the race in its gradual development have had their share in forming the models of the present, which represent the highest aspirations of the race, the kindergartner will recognize the place which childish standards should have in the growth of the group; but by example and suggestion she will seek to elevate the ideal to what more nearly approximates the best of today. There will be the gradual evolution of a society growing in a way similar to man's, founded upon the desire for activity and the gregarious instinct. First, (*a*) the children will all do the same thing at the same time; (*b*) a little later the result of the activity will be put together to form a common product. Then (*c*) will come the choice of

a leader with all the children following. Next (*d*) will come the planning of a purpose by contributions from many individuals; this purpose will then be carried out by each child in his own way. Finally (*e*) will come the planning of a common purpose which can be accomplished only by each child perfecting the particular share which falls to his lot. The kindergartner will use these methods with all materials, progressing as far as she can with each as she will realize that between four and six years of age is the period for the most rapid development of social ideals.

The attitude cultivated toward materials will depend largely upon what the kindergartner considers most real in life. (1) The extremists, such as the early Christians, held that reality was spirit only, appearance was to be despised. (2) Others, as the later Greeks, believed that reality was only in what stimulated the senses. (3) Some philosophers of the present maintain that reality is the complete union of the spiritual and the material, the latter being the form in which spirit, in order to exist in this world, must embody itself. If (1) spirit is the solely important, that time is wasted which is spent dealing with the concrete; conversations, stories and songs which treat of virtues and other abstractions will be the only valuable parts of the programme. There will be a constant play of moods, but the essence of each will be lost because not embodied in form. If (2) on the other hand, the material side is solely valuable, materials will be used as ends in themselves; acquisition of facts, perfection of form and ability to practice technique will be the aim. Each thing, even the kindergarten itself as a whole, will be so complete that it will show a finish very pleasing to the adult. If (3) reality is the unity of the spiritual and the material, the kindergartner will lead a child to feel that there should be a guiding thought which seeks expression through all the materials at his command, through conversation, story, song, rhythm, game and handwork. Balance will always be preserved; the creative spirit will be called forth and take form in something adequate to the significance of the moment. A child will gain a feeling of the self as an organic unity; thought and expression in perfect accord will intensify the personality.

The kindergartner's yearly and even daily plans will be influenced by her view concerning the teleology of the universe. She may think that (1) God's design is static and unchangeable, in which case, she can have a fixed programme which will be of use everywhere. She may believe that (2) there is no preconceived plan, that the purpose is gradually evolving as the universe develops, then she will use any momentary suggestion of the children as a basis for work. But if (3) God's purpose is a living, growing one which man is helping to embody, the kindergartner will have a definite plan in mind, but it will be a principle rather than a design, so flexible that it will allow for variations which would be more valuable for the children at the particular time and place than the detail she had prepared.

In the kindergartner's attitude toward good and evil will be found the key to her discipline. If (1) because the body contains a soul, every human being is naturally good, mature ideals will be held up for copy in the belief that this is all that is necessary to bring a child back to rectitude. If, on the other hand, (2) being in a fleshy body means a natural inclination to sin, the evil must be driven out at all costs even by negative, compulsory methods. There may be another view (3) that "goodness" is a relative term, according to the standards of society, which are constantly changing. If evil is untrained impulse, the teacher will generally notice an offending action by suggesting a more virtuous way to free the energy.

Lastly, the view which the kindergartner holds of the nature of unity will be at the basis of her attitude toward the principle of interaction and will determine her choice of topics and method of treatment. If (1) she leans to the ideal side, the adult will give much and the child little. Any subject which the adult feels of value will be presented, trusting that the child will gain something from its consideration. If (2) emphasis is placed on the practical side, the respective shares will be reversed. Whatever interests the child will be taken up in the same way that a child uses it, for its momentary significance only. If (3) unity means the combining of two equal though unlike elements, both adult and child must have equivalent parts in carrying out the

principle of interaction. It will fall to the child's lot to select the points of interest for discussion (these for a five-year-old child will be in his immediate surroundings), and to the adult to find wherein they can be stamped with the values which will lead toward the acceptance of race judgments.

In summing up, if it were possible to mention all the methods included under numeral one (1) under each point, they would be seen to carry out a very consistent philosophy. A totally opposing view, and yet consistent in itself, would be found under (2); and the middle view under (3). Very few people are extremists, yet there is a tendency to lean more to one side than the other. Along the middle line lies truth. Emphasis on either the ideal or the practical in the kindergarten programme makes it one-sided. The true relation is the union of the two and the degree to which this relationship is maintained depends upon one factor. That factor is a personality.

The usual programme states the topic chosen, the idea which the children are to gain from its consideration, and also the particular method and purpose of each part of the day. The real programme can never be written, for the personal touch of the kindergartner arouses the controlling ideas, and is the most powerful method.

CONSTRUCTIVE ACTIVITIES AS AN ESSENTIAL AND IMPORTANT FACTOR IN THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL COURSE

EUPHROSYNE LANGLEY
School of Education, The University of Chicago

"Constructive Activities in the Elementary School"— that is my topic, and any discussion of it must be prophecy rather than history, for as yet the elementary school has had no constructive activities. Ten years ago a wave of criticism to the effect that the schools were impracticable, and could not hold the children, led to a widespread determination to put in manual training. That was to be the specific for the ills diagnosed by the critics, but our specific, it is now said, has failed to work a cure. And why? For the very good reason that though the manual-training prescription was duly written out, the medicine was never actually administered to the patient. I cannot find a school in this country where shop-practice for boys and girls is found throughout the elementary school.

The name manual training appears often in courses of study, but, when analyzed into its actual constituents, it is, outside of shop-work for boys in the seventh and eighth grades, hardly more than a chaotic assemblage of various forms of "busy work," relieved now and then by a bit of knife-work for boys, sewing for girls, or, for the younger children, a dip into the realm of the aesthetic in what Mr. Veblein calls "clay-muddling." Few subjects have been so handicapped as manual training; at the outset there was little in the way of equipment, no kilns, no looms, no benches. There was no time, the subject being superinduced on an already overcrowded curriculum. There was no pedagogical experience. There was no real understanding of the place of handwork in the educational state, and, at the best, manual training has never been more than an unnaturalized foreigner *in* the body politic, not *of* it.

Can handwork be made an effective part of the elementary school? Yes, but there must be a new point of view. We must be ready to put into practice what the best psychological theory has given us. There must be an entire reorganization of subject matter. The handwork must not be a new subject elbowing out space for itself and squeezing up the other subjects. No subject must be allowed to stand isolated. We must break down the pigeon-holes into which kinds of knowledge have been separately bunched. The three R's, though hoary with respectability, are not the pivots on which the educational system turns. No child has an intellectual appreciation of the value of reading, writing, and arithmetic as such. They become of importance to him only when they are the means through which he attains some desired end. Take a child in the first grade. Give him the simplest forms of constructive activity, let him build a playhouse, make jelly or dry apples, dye wool and weave tiny rings. The wooden house, instead of being "so big" by hand is a definite number of inches on the ruler. The materials that enter into the making of jelly are weighed and combined in definite proportion. The weaving of rings demands careful laying out of spaces before the design can be put in. Thus through the actual making of things, number work, in terms of measurements and weights is levied upon each activity. The record of the work in the child's own notebook turns into reading and writing. In a perfectly natural, simple fashion the child reaches out through his social occupations to the more formal studies, which, under such circumstances, cease to be formal or even formidable.

As the "three R's" become the tools which express and reinforce the activities, on the one hand, so, on the other, history, geography, and nature-study, a group in which each is the complement of the others, should form the industrial and social background from which the activities themselves spring. It is illogical and arbitrary to tear apart subjects which rightly belong together in order to build a series of separate coops in which to house a curriculum.

Constructive activities demand a constructive method, and a constructive method insists that the order of introducing handi-

crafts should be from the kindergarten up, rather than from the eighth grade down. A right constructive method also implies that the handicrafts should not follow along a line of prescribed models arranged from the point of view of the tool and of the adult organizing mind, but should be based absolutely on the subject-matter taught and should be vitally related to each other.

One of the effects of such reorganization is a saving of time. With such fusion of studies as I have briefly indicated, all the formal subjects usually taught in the grade, plus actual shop work in *all* the handicrafts, can be adequately taught without the expenditure of an extra half hour of time. The cost of such reorganization would be chiefly the initial expense in the way of additional space and equipment, and the permanent expense of perhaps two additional teachers in a school of average size. And finally, to make such reorganization effective, there must be mental organization on the part of both grade teacher and special teacher, and the special teacher should add to a broad pedagogical outlook a sound technical training.

What would be the effect of such school work on children? The most startling fact concerning the elementary school is the fact that of those who enter the first grade 80 per cent. do not reach the eighth, an educational leak which, if paralleled in business, would mean bankruptcy. It is my belief that no possible agency could so effectively hold a child in school as a right readjustment of the elementary course on the basis of handicrafts, and I say put the handwork in from the kindergarten up, because the children fall out chiefly in Grades 3, 2, and 4, and in that order. Consider for a moment the agencies which the modern feeling of responsibility for the child brings into co-operative guardianship around the third-grade boy who wishes to play truant. A recent report lists them for us: The truant officer, the factory inspector, the probation officer, the charity worker, the sociologist, the social settlement worker, the woman's club, the teacher, the principal, and the humanitarian—all these to make one boy stay in the third grade. And yet he slips through the meshes of the educational system and escapes to his true school, the street. This small boy has more ingenuity and more energy

than the school in its present organization can use, an ingenuity and energy certain to be destructive unless we can make them constructive.

If the money spent, and now necessarily spent, on restraint, constraint, reformation, were turned over into the school funds and expended on prevention, children and communities would be immeasurably the better therefor. That constructive activities would hold the child is clearly apparent from our truant schools, where the most difficult children are so held, and the report of their desirable activities comes with pathetic emphasis to the good little boy who has no such opportunities. We can quite understand the inoffensive little chap who in Chicago was found deliberately throwing stones at windows that he might be sent to Bowmanville (the parental school) "where they make things."

Now if we do succeed in holding the children through the eight grades our educational problem is practically solved. It is because we have not been able to do this that the manufacturers have come forward with their remedy, which is to push the trade ideal down into the grades. Appalled at the lost 80 per cent., at the mass of raw material not converted by the school into marketable stuff, dismayed by their own inability to get skilled workmen, they say, give us the child at the earliest possible moment, at the place where you no longer hold him; let him select a trade, and we will at least make a tolerable artisan of him. There can hardly be a movement more significant and more important than to have the proverbial apathy of communities toward educational questions broken in upon by the alert interest of business men. They are progressive, practical, accustomed to see a weakness and remedy it without any beating around the bush. They command money and influence. What they ordain is almost certain to come to pass. I heartily agree with their plan of establishing trade schools. They are an imperative need. But I am strongly of the opinion that the trade school should not begin its especial work till the close of the elementary school. In other words, I do not believe in the two sorts of elementary school, one bent to fasten on to a trade school, the other bent to fasten on to a "culture" school. Handwork in the elementary school

should be the same whether the child is destined for the carpenter's bench, the professor's chair, or any of the vast range of occupations between these. Differentiation can seldom come wisely into play in the elementary school. Vocational selection, if imposed upon the child while still in the grades, is likely to be a disastrous mistake. No teacher, no parent even, holds the divining-rod whereby may be discovered the secret springs of a child's best future activity. Even voluntary early vocational selection is not to be trusted. It is liable to be whimsical, uncertain, determined by temporary influences. If the kind of occupation fervently made by every boy of ten were to reach mature realization, the army and the navy, the police force, the livery business, would be steadily overcrowded. It is hardly reasonable to expect a child of ten or twelve to select out of the great industrial forces of the world that particular line in which his contribution to those forces should run, nor should it be the purpose of the elementary school to urge such selection.

Courses in the elementary school should be planned with the idea of giving to each child the utmost in the way of general development possible to him. It is on this basis alone that constructive activities should be put into the first eight grades. I think of the child as at the hub of a wheel. All his studies and activities are the spokes that connect him with the rim, or the world in general. And he must be led to look along each spoke to each section of the rim. Each handicraft, each subject, should be considered as a means in throwing what Browning calls "films of connection" between the child and his environment. If you set him too early in an appointed groove you unduly narrow his experience. You compel him to look along one spoke to one section of the rim, instead of to all. You strengthen one film of connection at the expense of the others. Every child, whether he is to be later in trade or in scholastic life, has a right to the widest opening out of his personal resources, the most varied activities, the most freely experimental stretching-out of tentacles, that the best-planned, best-equipped elementary school can offer. By all means give every child a chance at a trade, but first give him the opportunity of being a developed individual.

Reorganization such as I believe in, a reorganization called for by two expert opinions, that of the business man and that of the small boy who plays truant at the third grade, would, I am confident, serve even the manufacturer's need better than his own method which, indeed, he does not propose as ideal but as a practical meeting of a present situation. Business statistics are as relentless as those of the schools and show that boys who go directly into some trade at fourteen to sixteen usually come to the limit of their advancement by eighteen, while those who can get more training are the ones who go on to higher positions.

To sum up: I believe in handwork in the elementary school, from the kindergarten up. I believe not in one or two activities, but in all the activities taught in real shops, in a workmanlike manner, from the standpoint of industrial history, to both girls and boys. I believe that the result of such training will be a product of greatly increased value to trade, to the college world, and to life in general, and I believe that this ideal can be widely accomplished only when the business man and the pedagogue make it their common problem.

A MORNING EXERCISE[1]

THIRD GRADE—FRANCIS W. PARKER SCHOOL

PEARL BACKUS CARLEY
Third Grade Teacher

The following reports were given by the children of the third grade at morning exercises. They are the outgrowth of a year's work in the study of the history of Chicago, and illustrate one phase of the development of transportation.

Last year the third grade studied about early Chicago, and the different ways of traveling in the early days. We decided to make a train of cars in the sloyd shop. We chose the cars because they are made just outside of the city, and because Chicago is such a very large railroad center, and because going by train is the most rapid way of traveling.

The reason we did not make a passenger train is because there is so much shipping and commerce going on in the city, and the passenger cars are too hard to make.

We also made plans for the truck, the wheels, and the track. We thought it would be nice to give the cars to the kindergarten children.

JOSEPHINE PALMER

Two people worked on a car. If each child made one car, there would be too many cars, and we would not get them finished. One worked at the sides and floor; the other one made the ends, the top, and the running-board. We put two coats of paint on them. One child put on one coat of paint, and the other put on the last coat. We grooved the sides and ends with a carving tool to make it look like boards running up and down. We used large staple tacks for the steps. We named each car and planned the lettering. We called the cars the "F.W.P. Fast Freight."

MILDRED ZENOS

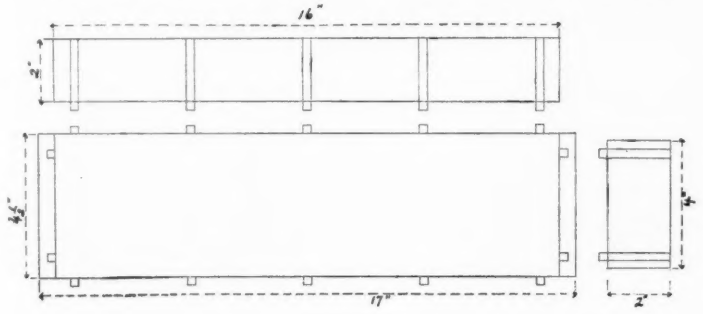
We did not go to the carshops to measure the cars, as we had all seen freight cars, and we had a good book[2] with pictures and measurements given.

[1] This article is reprinted from the January, 1905, issue of the *Elementary School Teacher*. It furnishes the rounding-out of the series of lessons on the History of Chicago, which have appeared in the issues of this JOURNAL for October and December, 1907.

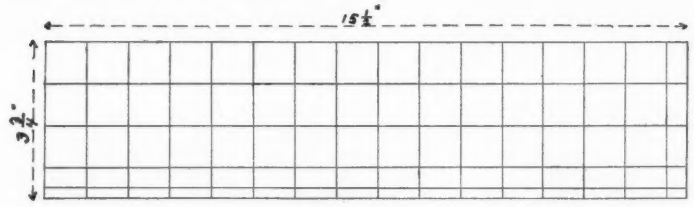
[2] American Car and Foundry Co.'s publication.

Each child used the book and selected the car he liked the best. I chose the coal car. It was 34 feet long. We decided upon the scale to use in making the cars. We first thought we would make them 1 inch to 1 foot, but 34 inches would make them too long. Then we thought that ½ inch to 1 foot would be better.

This is the plan of my car. HELEN STAUFFER



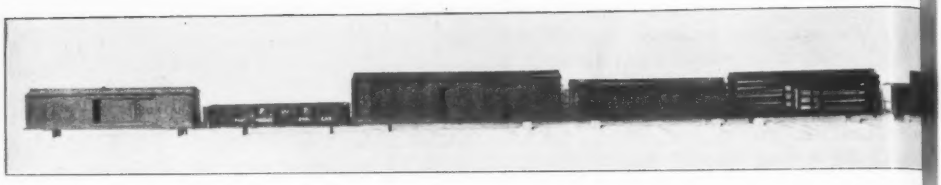
We wanted to know the capacity of our cars. We used inside measurements. The box car is 18½ inches long, 4 inches wide, and 3 inches high. I made a drawing of the floor of the car. We used 1-inch cubes to see how many cubic inches there were in one layer. We found 74 cubic inches. In three layers there were 222 cubic inches.

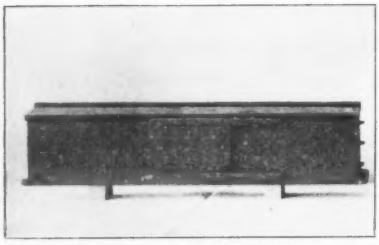


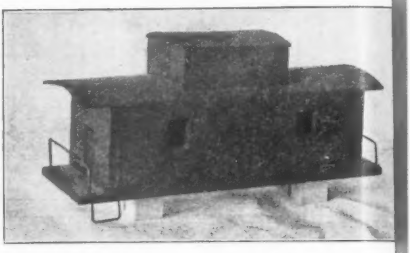
I made a drawing of the floor of the coal car too. In the first layer there were 58⅛ cubic inches. In two layers there were 116¼ cubic inches.

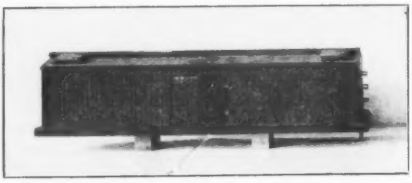
FRIEDA MAYNARD

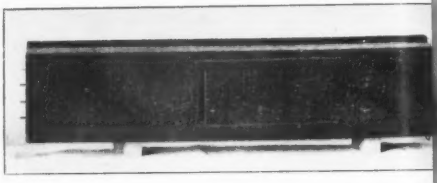
How we made our wheels: We wanted to have iron wheels for our cars, but we could not make them. We used Frank's wooden model for casting wheels in lead because we wanted to know how they cast large wheels. We took two flasks and pounded molder's sand into one of the flasks, and set the wooden wheels half way in. Then we sprinkled dry sand on so that the molder's sand in the other flask wouldn't stick. Then we put the other flask on it and the pegs held it in place. We then took the two flasks apart and

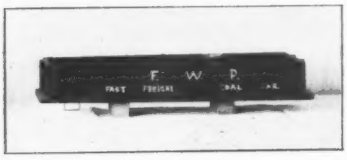


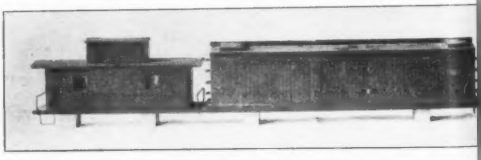


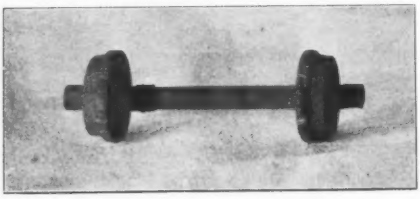


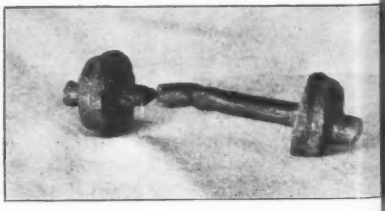








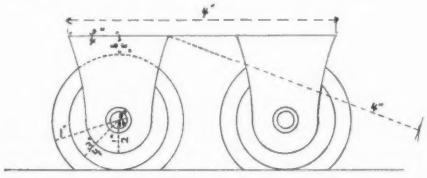




took the wooden model out. We made air holes in the flask on top with a hatpin and a larger hole to pour the melted lead in. We put the flasks together again and poured the lead in the hole. When cool we took the flasks apart and this is the way the lead wheels looked. The reason there are these holes in them is because there were not enough air holes in the flasks and the melted lead couldn't push the air out.

DOROTHY WING

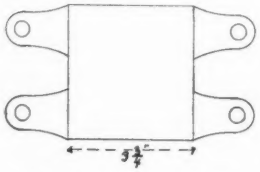
When we made the wheels we used the same scale that we did in making the cars, only we made the flange bigger. The reason we did this is because the little cars are not heavy enough to stay on the track.

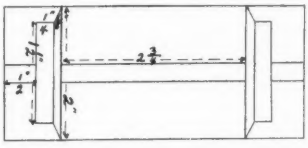


I made a model of the wheels on the lathe. Here is the plan of my wheels.

FRANK PACKARD

Everybody in the third grade last year made a drawing for the truck for our cars, and we at last decided upon this one. The truck is made of some metal. It fits on the bottom of the car and holds the wheels onto the car. We are going to screw our truck to the car so it can turn a little when going around curves. We did not plan to keep the side of the truck from hitting the wheels, and if it did the car could not move very easily, so we think we will put a washer between the truck and the wheels. The wheels are ⅜ inch below





the bottom of the car. We made them that way so the wheels will not hit the bottom of the car. We shall make the hole that we shall put the axle in larger than the axle, so it will have plenty of room to turn around.

LUCY SMITH

If we were to use these cars we would send the stock car west to the cattle ranches to be filled with cattle and bring it back to the Stock Yards to unload. The refrigerator cars we would send to the Stock Yards, fill with

fresh meat, and ship to the East where the people need it most. The coal car we could send right down in Illinois and fill with coal to help carry on the great manufacturing in the city. The furniture car we could fill with furniture made here and ship west where the people need it most. The box car we could take to Minnesota to fill with grain, or it might be used for any common freight. The caboos is used for the people who work on the train, and the men who look after the stock.

We went down to measure the kindergarten circle, and found it was 16 inches in diameter. We found there was room just outside of the circle for the track. It is to be made in sections so it can be stored away when not in use.

As we have done all we can on the cars, we have asked the big boys to help finish them, so the kindergarten children can use them very soon.

OWEN WHITE

There were many problems in arithmetic not suggested in the children's reports, such as finding the capacity of real cars, and finding the number of board feet and the cost of the lumber used in making the cars.

READING LEAFLETS, FRANCES PARKER SCHOOL
PART I

THE HARVEST

JENNIE HALL

The following reading-lessons were made for a second grade during the process of reaping their harvest of corn from the school garden, of grinding it into corn-meal, and of cooking the meal. The sources of other kinds of flour interested the pupils, and they made the experiment of grinding and sifting rice, barley, wheat, peas, acorns, oat-meal. They also collected and mounted samples of various grains and the foods produced from them. Strange ways of cooking, too, were of interest; the children liked to hear about them and to try them. Among the Keystone Views are many stereoscopic pictures which were of great value in this piece of work.

AN INDIAN CORNFIELD

It was deep in the forest.
Great trees stood around it.
A little brook ran at one side.
Houses made of bark stood near it.
Paths led from the houses into the forest
It was cool and dark in the woods.
But the sun was shining on the cornfield.
Tall dead trees stood among the corn.
Once there had been no cornfield there.
Then the trees grew close together.
Bushes grew under them.
But the Indians needed a cornfield.
They cut down the bushes.

They pulled up the roots.
They cut down the small trees.
But it was hard to cut down the large ones.
"We will let them stand," the Indians said.
But their leaves kept out the sun.
The corn needed sunshine.
So the Indians made a fire at the foot of each tree.
It burned the trunk.
The trees were strong and full of sap.
So they did not burn down.
But they died.
The leaves fell off.
The sun shone down on the corn.
The dead trees spread their bare branches above it.
The corn waved its green leaves below them.

CORN TENTS

It was September.
We children were playing in the cornfield.
Big corn shocks stood about on the field.
Big yellow pumpkins lay here and there.
The ground was black and warm.
The sun was hot.
We sat in the shade of a shock.
"The corn shocks look like Indian tents," said Edith.
Then we all cried,
"Let's play Indian!"
Each child ran to a shock.
He pushed himself into it.

There we sat in the doors of our tents.
We looked out at one another.
But John sat still on the ground.
He was working with his knife and a cornstalk.
"Why don't you come, John?" we called.
"I am a white man making a fiddle," he said.
"I will play it and you Indians may come and dance."

EDITORIAL NOTES

When a movement is passing through an experimental stage, it requires courage and a certain degree of hardihood to respond to the educational public when they request the publication of some statement as to what is being attempted and what accomplished.

Reconstruction of the Kindergarten Movement

During the past decade the kindergarten movement in education has experienced some painful throes in the process of reconstruction. It has, however, stood the test of this crucial transition, thus disappointing the critics who saw in its externals and technique nothing more than a passing educational fad. But it is arising from its own ashes by outgrowing the superficial practice and traditions of its early history, thus fulfilling its promise of a valuable contribution to education. This development was prophesied by students whose faith was unshaken by the early mistakes, because they saw more implied in Froebel's philosophy than shown in his own applications or those which his more recent exponents had realized. In this promising process of reconstruction the effort is being made to build up a practice and application more worthy of Froebellian philosophy and theory.

Froebellian Philosophy and Elementary Education

It is generally conceded by the more thoughtful leaders in modern educational theory that the philosophy of Froebel, while incomplete and unsystematized as a whole, is marvelous in its intuitive insight and worthy of most serious study. Until recently, those men who had given the most scholarly study to the theory of education promulgated by Herbart, were utterly ignorant of the equally valuable contribution made by Froebel. The great Froebel is now coming to his own. Students of elementary education are no longer blinded by the sometimes puerile expression of his deep philosophy of life and education as typified in the kindergarten; they are beginning to see the Froebel who is larger and greater than any of the specific technicalities in which he often most inadequately attempted to realize his own philoso-

phy. One might venture the statement that as the debt of the elementary school to Herbart is universally understood and conceded, and his theory quite thoroughly worked out, many of the masters in our universities are now turning their attention to Froebel, bringing to bear upon his philosophy the scholarly research and analysis bestowed upon Herbart a generation ago.

Thus the Froebel who was in the sole possession of the kindergarten and of a limited number of school men, such as Dr. William T. Harris, Dr. William N. Hailman, and Col. Francis Parker, is now coming into the possession of the elementary school as well. It is not generally appreciated that Froebel had applied his voluntaristic philosophy to the process of education in the elementary school with recognized success before he concentrated his study upon the stage of development for which he planned the activities and instrumentalities of the kindergarten.

It is deeply significant and prophetic of the only true solution of the union between the kindergarten and the elementary school that some of our leading universities are offering courses in the theories of Herbart and Froebel. The masculine gender is generously represented not only in the staff of instructors, but in the enrolment of the classes. Here are to be found men who are preparing for the positions of principal and superintendent of schools and for instructors in our normal schools affiliated with state institutions or universities.

Thus Froebel is no longer in the exclusive possession of the kindergarten and the feminine gender. It behooves the kindergartners of the future to bring to the study of Froebel a scholarly preparation or we will find our birthright taken from us. We will be left with a conception of our own great leader which will be narrow and meager as compared with that of the masculine students of Froebel in these universities.

As was to be expected, this more critical study of Froebel is bringing to light his limitations as well as his genius, his oft-times faulty applications as well as his great principles. This broader interpretation of Froebellian philosophy and its application to the problems of the elementary school, is not only demand-

ing a reconstruction of the traditional methods of the elementary school, but an equally radical reconstruction of the traditions and practice of the kindergarten. This must be done if the latter is to survive and hold a dignified position in the educational systems of the future.

Scholarly Criticism of Traditional Method Desirable

This need for regeneration within the kindergarten itself, has caused some anxiety among kindergartners. There is a more or less vaguely defined tendency to divide into factions in favor of or opposed to reconstruction. Some feel the urgent necessity for increasingly modifying the practice as laid down by Froebel himself; others are equally certain that such an attempt will be most disastrous to the movement and that the kindergarten must be maintained in its entirety of theory and practice if its true value is to be passed on to future generations. On the whole a fair majority of kindergartners are coming to realize that a respectful, scholarly criticism is not only inevitable but desirable.

Those who believe that the kindergarten must be rescued from its own formalism and traditionalism have faced the serious necessity for experiment and research in attempting to apply Froebel's principles in a more consistent practice. This experimental work has been so absorbing, the attempt to evolve a more worthy practice so demanding, that the participants have had little time to devote to the publication of articles which would explain the work being done in this forward movement in kindergarten circles. In other words the kindergartners actively engaged in the attempt to find worthy substitutes for a sane reconstruction of the traditional procedure, have been too absorbed in the experimental demands to record the results of research, too conscious of the tentative value of the results of experiment to draw conclusions, too eager to move forward toward a more ideal vision to accept as final any results so far attained.

However, as the kindergarten is being incorporated in the public school system, superintendents, principals, and school men generally are urging kindergartners to make known from their point of view its present status and future needs. There is an

increasing demand for a fuller understanding of the progress being made by the so-called "new movement" and the time has come when kindergartners must meet this responsibility if superintendents and principals are to participate in and give intelligent supervision to the kindergartens under their charge.

Projected Articles on Theory and Practice of Kindergarten

A group of kindergartners who early affiliated with the reconstructive movement in the kindergarten have responded to this call and there will be, through the coming year, one article on the theory and practice of the kindergarten in each number of the *Elementary School Teacher*. The contributors are Mrs. Alice H. Putnam, Froebel Training School, Chicago; Miss Bertha Payne, The University of Chicago; Miss Alice Temple, Mrs. Mary Boomer Page, Chicago Kindergarten Institute; Miss Nina Vandewalker, Milwaukee State Normal School; Dr. Jenny B. Merrill, Supervisor New York Public School Kindergartens; Miss Caroline T. Haven, Ethical Culture School, New York; Miss Patty S. Hill, Columbia University, New York.

These contributors were selected, not on the basis of intellectual uniformity in either theory or practice, but rather on the basis of a unity of purpose, a purpose which grew out of an earnest desire to see the kindergarten go forward in the realization of its prophetic greatness, even at the cost of death to its dearest traditions; if by dying to the letter of the outer form, the divine spirit of the kindergarten could be born in the light of the new day.

These articles are an effort to state to educators in general, in as simple terminology as possible, what is going on in the kindergarten world, what progress has been made, and what reconstructions found necessary in the light of recent developments in philosophy, psychology, and sociology. The ground is new and the attempts to improve upon the earlier practice will necessarily often be faulty. The interpretations, the inferences and conclusions will quickly be improved upon and possibly superseded, as more scholarly study is brought to bear upon the problems under consideration. This is but the price of progress and the time has now come when attempts which are being made

to better our best in the kindergarten should be made known to all educators, including our professional co-workers who hold opposing points of view.

These articles are published with the sincere desire that they may provoke discussion and study, and that through the fire of criticism the gold may be separated from the dross and only the most worthy elements survive. If this great movement is to grow and the kindergarten be liberated from the faulty traditions which are necessarily mixed with its illuminating truths, we who desire to participate and contribute to this reconstruction, even in the humblest way, must not be too fearful of being found in the wrong. As explorers in a new land, too vast for any one person to investigate thoroughly alone, let each return from the search, eager to contribute to the whole the small knowledge gained and in turn to have his personal impressions rectified and illuminated by the contributions of the whole. Such a spirit will in time prove the true value of the principles of the kindergarten to all education and make it possible for both the kindergarten and the elementary school to absorb the eternally true in Froebellian philosophy while eliminating the limitations growing out of his education, training, personality, temperament, and period.

If these articles be found worthy of collecting into a volume for publication at the end of the year for the use of kindergartners, elementary teachers, principals and superintendents, all is well. If the discussion and criticism which they call forth bring the kindergarten to a higher level of attainment, and, having done this, they perish, all is well. If, as a result of the discussion and criticism provoked, the new movement in kindergarten outgrows these articles on the upward way to the realization of higher ideals, the contributors will feel satisfied to see their personal contributions fade in the light of any newer and better thought which they may call forth.

Those who help us to detect our errors will contribute, not only to the kindergarten movement, but will place the contributors themselves under everlasting obligations.

PATTY SMITH HILL

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NOTES AND NEWS

George B. McClellan, mayor of New York City, is to preside at the second annual congress of the Playground Association of America which meets in that city the second week of September. The congress will endeavor in every possible way to arouse a strong public sentiment in favor of playgrounds. Among the prominent speakers will be Governor Hughes, George E. Johnson, Professor Royal Melendy, Dr. E. E. Arnold, E. B. DeGroot, Professor C. T. Hetherington, Dr. Luther Gulick, and Joseph Lee.

Dr. W. S. Cornell has an article in the *Psychological Clinic* on "Mentally Defective Children in the Public Schools." His work is based upon personal investigations made in pursuit of his official duties as a school medical inspector of Philadelphia. He finds that there are four distinct groups of children: (1) children who are apparently mentally defective, but are really only undeveloped because of poor general health, poor eyesight, or improper home surroundings; (2) dull children; (3) backward children, and (4) feeble-minded children. He compares dull children with bright children with respect to their physical defects, and finds that while 70 to 80 per cent. of the bright children have no defects, only 44 to 60 per cent. of the dull children are without such defects. About 10 per cent. of the bright children have nose and throat defects, and very nearly 30 per cent. of dull children have such defects. He calls attention to the large number of feeble-minded children in the public schools. He estimates that 0.1 per cent. of the children in the public schools are actually feeble-minded, 0.5 to 1 per cent. are truly backward, and about 10 per cent. are dull.

The Children's School Farm movement, which was started by Mrs. Henry Parsons in New York City, some seven years ago on park land, has spread so rapidly throughout the country that there is now a scarcity of efficient teachers to take charge of the various "school farms" in hundreds of different localities. Nature-study teachers are fairly plentiful, but while it was thought sufficient recruits could be gained from their ranks to carry on the school farm movement, it has been found that, without special training, these teachers, in many cases, are as unsuccessful in conducting a children's garden as an ordinary carpenter has often proved to be when tried as a teacher of a large class in manual training in the public schools.

To meet this demand for efficient teachers of children's gardens and elementary agriculture the International Children's School Farm League carried on a special six weeks' course in the practical making and management of children's gardens, at the summer school of New York University

this past year. The fine old garden of the Schwab estate was placed at the disposal of the university, as a laboratory and outdoor classroom.

"The ordinary assumption that school gardening is merely the conversion of garden work into a pleasure for children is altogether wrong," says Mr. Parsons, secretary of the League. "Neither is the work taken up merely to show the children how to grow vegetables. The gardens are nature's laboratories, in which her laws take on reality, through the simple garden experiments which illustrate processes of life. Educators now realize that such instruction increases the benefits to be derived from textbooks by fully one hundred per cent."

The American School Hygiene Association is to issue a monthly paper entitled *School Hygiene*. The first number, though small in size, contains thirteen articles and abstracts on such important subjects as eye-strain in school-children, school baths, prevention of tuberculosis, playground legislation, the department of hygiene, and the education of the public in scientific medicine. The journal "stands for an attempt made to call the attention of as many persons as may be reached to the existing school conditions in the country and to methods of improving them." At the same time it aims to foster an increase of knowledge on topics of school hygiene, most of the data concerning which is tied up in reports of scientific societies and in other technical volumes.

One of the most suggestive summer-school experiments we have seen comes from Newton among children of a tenement district, and is reported by the *Springfield Republican*. The school authorities rented a three-room tenement not far away and the class proceeded to make it fit for living purposes, by scrubbing, painting, papering, whitening, repairing, and furnishing. The boys set window-panes, repaired wood-work, made furniture and wove rugs. The girls made draperies and other furnishings. Curtains of unbleached muslin were stenciled by the primary department. With the exception of a range, bed and bureau, which were donated, all of the furniture was made by the class. It included chairs, tables, such conveniences as towel-racks, towels, and wash-cloths, every detail of an adequately furnished tenement. A window-box of geraniums was added for ornament. The total cost, including two months rent at $6 a month, was $25.

BOOK REVIEWS

The Auxiliary Schools of Germany. Six lectures by B. MAENNEL, Rector of the Mittelschule in Halle a. d. Saale. Translated by FLETCHER BASCOM DRESSLAR, Associate Professor of the Science and Art of Teaching in the University of California. Department of the Interior, Bulletin No. 3, 1907. Pp. 137.

This is a timely publication of the history of a movement now some fifty years old in Germany which has for its aim the solution of the problem of the education of backward or defective children. At a time when in the United States the consideration of this problem is being attacked with seriousness, the experience of Germany will be welcomed by all who desire either for scientific or practical reasons to know what have been the results of this half-century of effort.

The lectures of Rector Maennel are replete with information of the sort one requires in order to form an idea of just what the procedure of such schools is. This feature is worthy of special emphasis and renders the publication especially valuable for reference. Following an interesting historical sketch of the movement in Germany and elsewhere throughout Europe and in America, there are chapters on reasons for the establishment of auxiliary schools, admission procedure, the parents and the whole environment of auxiliary school pupils before and during the school period, health conditions of auxiliary school pupils, the pupils of the auxiliary school and their characterization, the building for the auxiliary school, classification of pupils in an auxiliary school and the number in each class, the daily programme, the curriculum, methods of instruction, discipline in the auxiliary school, preparation of auxiliary school pupils for confirmation, the community and the state in their relations to the auxiliary school, the teachers and the principal of the auxiliary school, the pedagogical significance of the auxiliary school. The bureau of education has done the teachers of this country a service by making this material available. W. B. O.

Linguistic Development and Education. By M. V. O'SHEA. New York: The MacMillan Company, 1907. Pp. 346. $1.25.

The relatively large part assigned to instruction in language, both the vernacular and foreign, in our elementary and secondary schools, seems to warrant the attempt to put that instruction on the best attainable scientific basis. This basis the book under review aims to set forth. As the author states in his preface, the field is a large one and in attempting to cover it one would of necessity be restricted to the exposition of principles, with the use of just enough concrete material to serve as illustration. The author further states that the book owes its origin to his own desire to work out these principles in

the course of observing the linguistic development of his own children and of their mates. The author has used the researches of other workers in the field with full bibliographical references, so that the result is a fairly comprehensive survey of the course and scope of investigation up to date.

It is not unfair, perhaps, to say that the chief value of the book lies in the organization of material scattered about in special articles and separate treatises, so as to present a comprehensive view of the whole process of linguistic development, rather than in the new facts reported, or new theories propounded. To have made this body of opinion accessible in the form of an outline of theory is to have performed a worthy service to education.

There are thirteen chapters in the book of 347 pages. There is a general bibliography in addition to the foot-notes and a subject index. In the thirteen chapters two general phases of the subject are treated, non-reflective processes in linguistic development (Part I), and reflective processes in linguistic development (Part II). Under the first heading, there is the discussion of prelinguistic expression; early re-action upon conventional language; parts of speech in linguistic activity; inflection, agreement and word-order; development of meanings. Under the second are treated acquisition of word-ideas in reading, acquisition of graphic word-ideas, development of meaning for word-ideas in reading, development of efficiency in oral expression, processes in graphic expression, development of efficiency in composition, acquisition of a foreign tongue.

W. B. O.

The Welfare of Children: A Reading List on the Care of Dependent Children. By BROOKLYN, N. Y., PUBLIC LIBRARY. Pamphlet, pp. 44.

The Welfare of Children is a most excellent reading-list which includes both books and magazine articles. It is compiled by Miss Mary F. Lindholm of the Brooklyn Public Library staff, and is published by the Public Library. The annotations are brief and the references are classified under the following headings: I, Bibliographies; II, General Sources of Information; III, Factors Tending to Produce Juvenile Delinquency and Dependence; IV, Methods of Prevention and Reform of Juvenile Delinquents.

IRENE WARREN

SCHOOL OF EDUCATION

The Kindergarten in American Education. By NINA C. VANDEWALKER. New York: Macmillan, 1908. Pp. 274. $1.25.

There is a relation beteen American education and the kindergarten which is very intimate. One may have heard of the lack of interest in Froebel on the part of the Germans, yet he is unprepared to find how thoroughly many German educators still leave him out of account. A prominent schoolman was fairly shocked at the space and prominence given to Froebel by Professor Monroe in his textbook in the *History of Education,* and said to me, "I cannot understand you Americans. With us in Germany Froebel is an old woman." There is another side to this matter but that is found in those who are most alive to the new movements. But in the America of the last fifty years and the kindergarten there are common elements which may well make

this period in the development of the institution the most important that may come to it.

This significant relationship has been sketched in part by various writers, but we are fortunate in having the full statement from so well qualified a person as the author. Miss Vandewalker has an acquaintance with the elementary school that few kindergartners possess, and she also combines the training and view-point of the normal school with that of the university. While she is recognized as a representative of the newer movement in the kindergarten, yet she shows evidence of an appreciation and understanding of the valuable elements in the position of those who belong to the older school.

The book is encyclopedic in nature. The student of almost any phase of the subject will find an abundance of material well selected and well organized. The first chapter and the last place the kindergarten with reference to the general educational movement both retrospectively and prospectively, while the ten intervening chapters, taking the Centennial and Columbian Expositions as stations, show the gradual development of the movement in relation to the surprisingly large number of organizations and associations which have contributed to its progress.

There is an appendix which gives references in kindergarten development in the different states. The index is fairly adequate but not complete, as one finds occasional material to which there is no reference. The large amount of detail in some of the chapters leads one to inquire whether, in a later edition, a calendar may not be included which will give in small compass the most important dates to which reference is made. The work is necessarily largely descriptive rather than critical, and one needs to consider some parts of its contents, as for instance certain books referred to from the standpoint of the complex social problems in which kindergartners are involved rather than from that of the most advanced educational standards. When, however, the author does undertake criticism the sifting usually is well done, as in the case of the Herbartian movement, and the tendencies in kindergarten philosophy. One could wish that the child-study movement had been handled more critically.

The material here brought together makes an excellent foundation upon which it is hoped there may be formulated a statement of educational theory and practice with reference to the needs of young children and also a thoroughgoing communication of the philosophy which lies back of the best practice of today. In the future the kindergarten may be less distinct from the rest of the school than it has been, but whatever synthesis the future educational system may reveal, the development of this half-century in the kindergarten will be an important factor.

FRANK A. MANNY

NEW YORK CITY

BOOKS RECEIVED

HENRY ALTEMUS CO., PHILADELPHIA

Work and Habits. By ALBERT J. BEVERIDGE. Pp. 96. Cloth, $0.50; ooze calf, $1.00.

Good Citizenship. By GROVER CLEVELAND. Pp. 78. Cloth. $0.50.

THE ARCADIA PRESS, NEW YORK

A Little Land and A Living. By BOLTON HALL; with a letter of introduction by WILLIAM BORSODI. Cloth. Pp. 287.

A. S. BARNES & CO., NEW YORK

The Child World Primer. By ALYS E. BENTLEY AND GENEVA R. JOHNSTON. Cloth. Illustrated. Pp. 128.

THE UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO PRESS

The Seventh Yearbook of the National Society for the Scientific Study of Education: Part II, The Co-ordination of the Kindergarten and the Elementary School. (Supplement to Sixth Yearbook, Part II.) Paper cover. Pp. 66. $0.78 postpaid.

CLARENDON PRESS, OXFORD

Trois semaines en France. A French Reader. By L. CHOUVILLE. Edited by D. J. SAVORY; with questions for conversation and grammatical exercises by FRANCES M. S. BATCHELOR. Cloth. Pp. 127. *2 s.*

THE MACMILLAN CO., NEW YORK

The Last Days of Pompeii. (Macmillan's Pocket Classics.) By SIR EDWARD BULWER LYTTON. Edited, with Introduction and Notes, by J. H. CASTLEMAN. Cloth. Pp. 481. $0.25.

The Wonderful House That Jack Has. A Reader in Practical Physiology and Hygiene. By COLUMBUS B. MILLARD. Cloth. Illustrated. Pp. 359. $1.50.

How We Travel. A Geographical Reader. ("Home and World Series.") By JAMES FRANKLIN CHAMBERLAIN. Cloth. Illustrated. $0.40.

CHARLES E. MERRILL CO., NEW YORK

The Bender Primer. By IDA C. BENDER. Cloth. Illustrated. Pp. 128. $0.30.